# OCTOBER 1962

# INTERNATIONAL REVIEW

OF THE

# **RED CROSS**



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# INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

SECOND YEAR — No. 19
OCTOBER 1962

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#### THE

# INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

is published each month by the International Committee of the Red Cross

7, Avenue de la Paix, Geneva, Switzerland Postal Cheque No. I. 1767

Annual subscription: Sw. fr. 20.— Single copies Sw. fr. 2.—

Editor: JEAN-G. LOSSIER

# A SPECIAL INTERNATIONAL STATUS FOR CIVIL DEFENCE PERSONNEL

If the humanitarian conventions accord special guarantees to medical personnel of the armed forces in the interest itself of its mission on behalf of wounded and sick military, why should we, members of civil defence, who carry out similar tasks for civilian victims of hostilities, not benefit as well from a privileged status and especially from a distinctive sign?

This is a wish often expressed by representatives of civil defence organizations, particularly when they are of a non-military character. This same question was thoroughly examined by a group of experts convened in June 1961 by the ICRC, and whose task it was to study the position of civil defence organizations in international law.

As a result of this meeting the ICRC has prepared a detailed report together with a number of annexes which in particular include replies made by the National Red Cross Societies to an enquiry on the subject 1. We think our readers will be interested in seeing the essential portions of this report in the International Review, which comprise information about the object of the meeting as well as questions raised with the experts and their opinions.

We would add that the ICRC forwarded this report at the beginning of July in particular to all National Red Cross Societies, requesting them to transmit a copy of it to the organisations concerned with civil defence in their countries. The Committee's covering letter of June 20, 1962, concluded as follows: "As the report shows, the expert meeting in June 1961 made several suggestions about following up this work.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Working Party on the position of Civil Defence Organisations in International Law, Geneva, June 12-16, 1961 analytical report.

Type-written document D745 of May, 1962 in French, English, Spanish and German.

The ICRC will no doubt have the opportunity in the forthcoming months, and in view of the XXth International Conference, of informing you how and to what extent it could appear possible to it to take these suggestions into account and to put them into effect. <sup>1</sup>

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1. Historical background of the meeting.—In Resolution No. XIII, the XIXth International Conference of the Red Cross (New Delhi, 1957) urged "the ICRC to continue its efforts for the protection of the civilian population against the evils of war."

In order to follow up this resolution and in view of the few reactions shown by governments in the general regulation which it submitted in draft form to that Conference, the ICRC has considered it advisable to concentrate its efforts on certain specific points more likely to obtain sufficiently wide approval. One of these is the possibility of strengthening the legal protection of civil defence bodies.

In fact some replies which have been received from governments concerning the Draft Rules have laid stress on the importance of strengthening this protection; on the other hand, representatives of civil defence organizations at a conference in May 1958, emphasized the importance of reaching agreement, if possible on a uniform status on the international level and eventually on the adoption of a distinctive emblem.

Taking these requirements into account, and also its traditional rôle in the development of humanitarian law, the ICRC has deemed it its duty to examine seriously how this idea could find realization. Consequently it proceeded in 1959 to find out the views of some twenty National Red Cross Societies especially interested in the subject of the status of national civil defence organizations, with particular reference to the place of the medical services within these organizations. The numerous and detailed replies it received showed how much interest was shown in this question.

In order to bring out the results of these enquiries it therefore decided to convene a Working Party, of a preliminary and private character, consisting of a certain number of specialists invited on a purely personal basis and selected with the help of some of the National Red Cross Societies.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It should also be recalled that, in one of its resolutions, the Council of Delegates of the International Red Cross meeting at Prague in October 1961 voiced the wish "that the ICRC may actively continue its work in view of strengthening, within international humanitarian law, the immunity of non-military Civil Defence bodies, in particular by means of the adoption of a standard distinctive sign". (See *International Review*, November 1961, p. 421).

This Working Party met from June 12 to 16, 1961 and consisted of the following experts and Red Cross personalities specialists in these matters: Colonel Ernest Fischer, in charge of civil defence matters at the Federal Department of Justice and Police, Berne; Dr. Sten Florelius, Chief Medical Officer of Norwegian Civil Defence, Oslo; Dr. Bernhard Græfrath, Professor at the Humboldt University (East Berlin) and a legal adviser of the German Red Cross in the Democratic Republic: Dr. Hans Haug, Secretary-General of the Swiss Red Cross, Berne; Mr. Pierre Lebrun, Director of Belgian Civil Defence, Brussels; Mr. Ivar Muller, Deputy Chief of Swedish Civil Defence, Stockholm; Mr. Hermann Ritgen, in charge of questions concerning relief and protection in cases of disaster, German Red Cross in the Federal Republic, Bonn; Mr. J.-G. Rombach, Secretary of External Relations, Netherlands Red Cross, The Hague. In addition, Dr. Z. Hantchef, Director of the Health and Social Service Bureau of the League of Red Cross Societies was invited to join this party, as an observer.

The Working Party held eight meetings and was presided over by Mr. C. Pilloud, Deputy-Director for General Affairs of the ICRC, and was assisted by Mr. F. Siordet and Mr. D. Schindler, members of the ICRC, and by Mr. R. J. Wilhelm, an adviser in the legal department. It was thus able to make a thorough examination of all the fifteen items on the agenda.

2. The purpose of the meeting and its agenda.—As has already been stated, the meeting had to study the possibility of strengthening the "legal protection" of civil defence organizations. By this is meant the special protection which humanitarian law can accord to civil defence bodies during hostilities and against the effects of enemy occupation in order that they may continue their activities in all circumstances. Consequently this study is of interest to such bodies which, by giving intentionally a non-military aspect to the work which their personnel or a portion of their personnel carry out, thus show their desire to benefit, in whole or in part, from immunity against direct attack and capture in the same way as this is accorded to non-combatants by the law of nations.

In its draft rules for the protection of the civilian population, the ICRC has included a provision, article 12, relative to the civil defence bodies; but this is still purely indicatory and requires developing. In humanitarian law there is at present no provision which specifically mentions these bodies as we know them today. As against this, however, several provisions of the Fourth Geneva Convention can be applied to their activities, in particular paragraph 2 of article 63, an article which permits National Societies or other relief societies to continue their humanitarian activities in occupied territory. Thus certain national laws relative to the organization of civil defence refer to this article. It is

considered, however, that this provision (para. 2, art. 63) contains certain weaknesses and omissions and that it does not entirely cover all the activities of these organizations.

Thus the problem which has been raised by one of the replies received by the ICRC can be set down as follows: would it be desirable, for the activity of civil defence organizations, to attempt to draw up and to have accepted by governments a new regulation in international law, which would be more complete and more in keeping with the structure and the activities of these organizations than is the case under article 63? Or else should one remain within the framework of article 63, find possible ways of applying it to the existing civil defence organizations and thus to draw from this article an interpretation which would take the existing characteristics of these organizations into account, an interpretation which could be given subsequent official approval?

This was the question of preliminary principle upon which the Working Party's advice was sought. In the preliminary documentation which it submitted to it, the ICRC was of the opinion that it would be preferable, for the time being, without prejudice to the Party's advice, to define the interpretation which can be given to article 63 and to attempt to obtain its acceptance by some procedure which would have to be subsequently determined. This would have the advantage of starting from a provision, which has been practically universally accepted, since nearly all States are Parties to the Geneva Conventions. The ICRC added that the points which had thus been defined could be incorporated at a later date in an ad hoc regulation, if new humanitarian rules relative to armed conflicts had favourable chances of being accepted.

Consequently, the agenda which was submitted to the Working Party referred principally to article 63, without in any way excluding the study of other problems related to the protection in international law of the organizations concerned. This agenda consisted of six main questions relating to the application of article 63, paragraph 2, to these organizations.

The Working Party first of all examined which are the organizations to which this provision could apply (questions I and II), then the methods and the extent of the protection which should be accorded to these organizations (questions III, IV and V); finally, it made a study of a point not dealt with in article 63, but to which there would appear to be no objection, namely the adoption of a uniform distinctive emblem for organizations wishing to avail themselves of this provision (question VI).

3. Results of the Working Party's deliberations.—The present report mentions below the questions which were submitted to the experts, with brief comments (in brackets). Each question is followed by a short analytic summary of the advice given by the Working Party.

## GENERAL INTRODUCTORY DEBATE 1

A general debate took place first of all on the ICRC's proposed agenda and in particular on a matter of principle: should article 63 be considered sufficient or should one aim at an ad hoc regulation?

There were two schools of thought: some considered that article 63 offered a sufficiently important base for the protection of civil defence organizations; in their opinion it would be preferable, whilst remaining within the framework of that article, to attempt to define it and expand it as widely as possible.

The majority of experts, however, thought that article 63 did not constitute a sufficient base for ensuring effective protection of civil defence organizations. In their view this provision suffered especially from three great disadvantages; firstly it only concerned occupied territory when the protection of civil defence personnel had also to be assured in zones of military operations, in the same way as personnel attached to civilian hospitals. Secondly, the general reservation at the beginning of article 63 weakens the scope of the whole of the provision. Finally, the article was drawn up in 1949, when the development and present forms of civil defence organizations were still unknown.

Whilst agreeing with this point of view, some considered that the difficulty of ensuring effective protection was due to the civil defence structure itself, which varied considerably in each country. Others also pointed out that to strengthen the protection of civil defence organizations should not be an end in itself; it is bound up with the more general protection of the civilian population against the effects of hostilities, and it is this which should be assured.

The representatives of the ICRC were of the opinion that any alteration in the existing Conventions, or any drawing up of a fresh international regulation would require a lot of time and could meet with many difficulties. Consequently, it would be more realistic, whilst aiming at the widest possible protection, to begin with something which already existed, in other words to examine the most advantageous interpretation of article 63; at a second stage,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A general debate also took place when question VI (special identification) was examined.

one could attempt to find ways of extending the protection already assured by that provision.

All the experts finally came round to this point of view, some of whom considered that an examination of article 63 would draw attention all the more to omissions which would justify the desire for drawing up a new regulation.

# Questions I: What is meant by the term "of a non-military character" in article 63, paragraph 2, in relation to the various characteristics of civil defence bodies?

# 1) Authorities from which the civil defence organization depends

As most of the replies received by the ICRC showed, civil defence organizations wishing to benefit from article 63 have in general avoided depending on their Ministry of Defence and have instead placed themselves under the authority of the Ministry of the Interior. Can one envisage other alternatives?

On this point the experts were of the opinion, for practical and psychological reasons, that the civil defence organizations should be placed under the authority of a civilian ministry. In the case of occupation, the occupying power in fact abolishes all ministries of a military character and if civil defence is too closely dependent on them, it can be weakened as a result. If the civil defence organization is placed under civil authority, for example under the Ministry of the Interior-Home Office, as is the case in several countries, the organization can be advantageously presumed to be vested with a non-military quality.

The experts however admitted that this could not be regarded as an absolute criterion. On the one hand, in certain countries the Ministry of War can be of a purely civilian character in peacetime; on the other hand, civil defence sometimes depends jointly on several different Ministries, including that of Defence.

Thus, according to the experts, in order to determine the military character or otherwise of a civil defence organization, what has to be decided as regards the law of nations is less the authority upon which it depends, which can however provide a reasonable

assumption, than the activity carried out by its personnel and its attitude towards the enemy armed forces.

# 2) Recruitment of the personnel of the civil defence organization

Can this apply to personnel which had been originally incorporated in the armed forces and subsequently released for service with Civil Defence? Is this also applicable to personnel fit for military service and which has instead been drafted into the civil defence services?

On this point, the experts stressed the fact that it would be impossible at the present day to organize civil defence consisting solely of women or men unfit for military service. Civil defence should therefore be able, whilst keeping its non-military character, to receive personnel which had been part of the armed forces, or which was fit to belong to these forces. In their opinion it was essential that this personnel should not have a double assignment: No one incorporated in civil defence should in any way be dependent on the armed forces. In this connection they gave as an example national laws which clearly define this point.

It is also desirable to make this distinction for another reason foreseen by the experts. In occupied territory the occupying Power can, for reasons of security, intern civilians and such a measure has often been taken against persons having served or who are fit to serve in the armed forces. Consequently, if the incorporation of persons in this category, even before occupation, is shown to be of a permanent and unoccasional character, there will be less risk of these persons being subjected to internment measures.

# 3) Participation in hostilities

It is obvious and beyond dispute that civil defence personnel invoking article 63 cannot take any part whatsoever in military operations against the enemy; but how is this affected by participation in antisabotage measures and action against enemy agents?

The Working Party combined the study of this question with the one following and it gave its views on the arming in general of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> On this subject see also p. XXIII attached, legal advice which appeared in a Netherlands civil defence review.

civil defence personnel, without especially considering the case envisaged in the present question.<sup>1</sup>

# 4) The arming of civil defence personnel

To what extent can civil defence personnel be armed in its own defence or for other purposes?

This question gave rise to the most exhaustive discussion of the meeting, especially since the experts were in possession of the consultation given by the ICRC on a similar problem several months previously.<sup>2</sup>

Civil defence personnel can be armed in its own defence and in that of persons which it is assisting against illegal forms of attack, in the same way as military medical personnel are accorded the right to be armed by virtue of the First Geneva Convention (art. 22. (1)). One can also envisage the arming of civil defence personnel to permit it carrying out certain police duties, such as taking action against looting or sabotage, the maintenance of order in the event of evacuation, the guarding of civil defence installations or stores of food and relief supplies reserved for the victims of events.

One expert stated that in his own country there were insufficient ordinary police forces to carry out these duties in the case of armed conflict and that the civil defence organization had to be called upon, in order to fill this need, to perform duties of this kind.

Experts admitted that arming for strictly limited ends (legitimate defence, police), and under certain conditions, such as have been envisaged in the ICRC's consultation, was not contrary to the non-military character demanded by article 63. The majority, however, considered that generally speaking the arming of civil defence personnel could place the latter on dangerous ground: in time of war, civil defence must above all save lives and a clear definition must be sought of the duties which are purely its own; all other tasks should be left to bodies which have the right to carry arms, such as members of the armed forces detached on security

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The ICRC's views on this point, which are purely indicatory, were expressed in a recent consultation. See *International Review*, February 1962, p. 65.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See above-mentioned consultation.

duties and the police; if the latter is insufficient it should be reinforced. Moreover, the tasks envisaged in article 63 are centred around humanitarian aid and on activity which does not in principle imply the use of arms. This provision should therefore not serve as a basis for measures aimed at maintaining public order.

The experts have recognized, however, that certain States might perhaps wish to arm civil defence units for police duties, but that they should do this under their own responsibility and with as many restrictions as possible.

# 5) Activities of civil defence bodies in relation to the protection of military objectives

How far can a civil defence organization carry out its activities in relation to the safeguarding of installations which can be regarded as being military objectives? This point raises the question of "industrial protection" and consequently when this exists, of the co-operation between the one and the other.

The experts were firstly divided in their opinions on this somewhat complex problem. They first of all described the position existing in their different countries. It appears that on the one hand military installations have their own protection, more often than not of a military character. On the other hand, the protection of industrial installations is generally assured by a special organization which, in certain countries, is completely separate from civil defence, but in others, is fairly closely bound to it. Furthermore, the service of "industrial protection" does not always make the distinction between industries which, in the case of war, could obviously be considered to be military objectives, and other industries. On this particular point, clarification is required on the part of States wishing to have their civil organizations benefit from guarantees under article 63.

As regards an activity which a civil defence organization, fulfilling the requirements of article 63, can exercise in connection with establishments considered to be military objectives, the experts were led to distinguish between rescue properly speaking and action having as its object or main effect to protect the installations themselves. The rescue of civilians finding themselves in installa-

tions considered to be military objectives should always be covered by article 63, since these persons, as we have recalled, have not become combatants for that reason. In their opinion, rescue operations carried out by civil defence should be able even to extend occasionally to all other persons, whether military or civilian who might find themselves in danger or wounded as a result of the destruction of military objectives.

The experts also admitted that rescue could include the necessity of fighting fire, and that it was not easy to make a distinction between fighting fire with a view to saving lives and that of saving the installation itself. They were however unanimous in maintaining that the activity aimed chiefly at protecting installations considered to be military objectives and to maintain them in running order or capable of resuming production, should be entrusted to special bodies disconnected with civil defence in the sense of article 63.

They were also led to consider that the situation could present itself differently before or after an occupation. It is in fact possible that the occupying Power induces the civil defence organization of the occupied country to intervene on a large scale in the event of attack against industrial installations or even military installations used on behalf of the occupying forces. One would thus risk giving priority to rescue operations carried out in connection with installations of military importance, to the detriment of the rescuing of the civilian population itself as well as its dwellings and installations.

Indeed, by virtue of article 51 of the Fourth Convention relative to enlistment <sup>1</sup>, civil defence personnel could refuse to undertake missions which would involve them "in the obligation of taking part in military operations". However, the application of this provision, under the circumstances, can be disputed or give rise to difficulties. For this it is highly desirable, already in time of peace, to ensure that the activity of a civil defence organization wishing to benefit from article 63 does not extend its protection to industrial installations; it will thus be able the more easily to resist, in the event of occupation, demands made by the occupying Powers inclined to entrust it with missions outside the framework of its humanitarian tasks.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> On the exercising of the right of enlistment by the occupying Power and civil defence, see also Question III (3) below.

### 6) Co-operation between civil defence bodies and military units

It has been laid down in several countries that civil defence services will be called upon, in their relief action, to co-operate with military units. To what extent is such co-operation possible in the light of the term "non-military character?" Two cases of co-operation can in particular be envisaged:

- a) with military units, such as mobile columns forming part of civil defence.
- b) with army units in general.

Examining the first case, the experts considered that co-operation of civil defence with military units could be envisaged in two ways.

On the one hand, military units can assist civil defence in its customary tasks, especially when it is swamped by the amount of relief required. For example, civil defence can be given assistance by the military medical service or engineers.

As long as this co-operation remains purely humanitarian, the experts were of the opinion that it did not in any way deprive civil defence of its non-military character. Such co-operation should at least be avoided in cases where the military units concerned, which are always liable to attack or capture (with the exception of medical personnel), would be specially exposed to these dangers, and this in the interest itself of the victims to be aided.

On the other hand, civil defence and, in particular its medical service, can be induced to assist the military medical service, which is possible by virtue of article 18 of the First Geneva Convention. In this case also, as long as such co-operation remains on the humanitarian level, civil defence does not lose its right to benefit from article 63.

Then examining the case of the parallel existence in the same civil defence organization of militarized sections, also called upon to fight the enemy, and of sections with purely humanitarian tasks, the experts were of the opinion that the principles mentioned above could still apply. However, the position in this case appeared to them to be more delicate. In fact, when dealing with a civil defence organization of this sort, the occupying Power could dissolve such an organization, whilst maintaining the section with humanitarian tasks, but it could also make this the pretext (the presence of armed sections) of disbanding the entire organization.

It would therefore be advisable that the presence of armed sections in civil defence or even the co-operation of these with military units, as well as the purpose and the limits of such co-operation, be officially defined already in time of peace, eventually in the law relative to civil defence. This would then enable it to be known in advance to possible belligerents and to avoid civil defence from suffering from such co-operation in the event of occupation.

# 7) Civil defence services which could be of military value

Certain branches of civil defence, such as the Warning Service could also be of value to the armed forces. To what extent can these elements be regarded as being compatible with the non-military character demanded?

Only the warning service was discussed and in this respect the experts described the existing position in their own countries.

Generally speaking, it appears that it is the armed forces' warning system which itself transmits to the civil defence organization. The latter then gives the alarm to the civilian population. In some countries, however, that organization, although of a purely civilian character, has as its task also to warn certain national defence services or war installations, in order to enable them to take the necessary protective measures in time. This raises a difficulty, since the warning service, that is to say one of the civil defence services, assumes a character which no longer corresponds to the conditions laid down in art. 63.

The experts were therefore of the opinion that it would be advisable to recommend that the civil defence warning service, which is necessarily dependent on that of the armed forces, should only give the alarm to the civilian population and to those installations which are essential for its usual existence.

Question II: Can the tasks as laid down in article 63, para. 2 ("maintenance of the essential public utility services", "distribution of relief" and "organization of rescue"), be considered sufficient to cover all the humanitarian missions at present undertaken by the civil defence bodies?

One reply which was received by the ICRC in particular stated: "... protection (under article 63) is only accorded to organizations whose activity is limited to maintaining the physical life of the population and to ensure it its subsistence. In the meanwhile there has been some considerable development in this respect: thus the work of the relief sections of Civil Defence, as existing in our country, already goes beyond the scope of this article. This also applies to certain mixed bodies such, for example, as those which are called upon to direct and canalize the movements of refugees. In this sphere, the members of these relief sections co-operate with the welfare services and with other organizations, including the police".

Some experts agreed with the negative point of view expressed above. They were of the opinion that article 63 in its actual form appears to be considering above all aid which should be given once the damage has been done, and not activities of a preventive kind. It does not sufficiently apply to aspects of civil defence, such as evacuation, the alarm, the construction of shelters and aid to the victims or the homeless. Hence the necessity, according to them, of a new regulation better adapted to these aspects.

Other experts on the other hand considered that article 63 should not be interpreted in such a limited manner. The terms in particular, "for the purpose of ensuring the living conditions of the civilian population", and "by the maintenance of the essential public utility services and by the organisation of rescues", show, in their view, that this provision can apply to all the various civil defence tasks of a non-military character, including tasks of a preventive nature. All were of the opinion that it would be at least advisable for this wide interpretation to be given official recognition in one form or another.<sup>1</sup>

¹ In connection with this point one can mention the question submitted to the Working Party by one of the experts, Mr. P. Lebrun. In his capacity as a member of the International Commission of Firemen, he asked whether fire brigades, in their activity on the communal level, also benefited under article 63, 2, should they be incorporated or not in a civil defence organizations. Several experts considered that by its general terms, the article also applied to this activity, on condition that it remained humanitarian in the sense of this provision and that these bodies were not militarized or charged with missions of a military nature.

The International Commission of Firemen, moreover, at its request last year received a detailed report from the ICRC, on the strengthening of the protection accorded by humanitarian law to fire brigades in the case of armed conflict.

Finally, as regards the tasks and duties of civil defence in accordance with art. 63, one expert, who was supported by his colleagues, pointed out that the term "the same principles" mentioned at the beginning of paragraph 2 can and should also be understood as referring to the humanitarian principles of the Red Cross mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Such principles should also govern the humanitarian activities of civil defence, in particular the principles of impartiality and indiscrimination. Civil defence must lend its aid to all without distinction of race, creed or political opinions and access to shelters, for example, should not be refused to certain categories of persons founded on such criteria, as was the case during the last world war.

Question III: What is the type and the extent of the protection to be accorded to civil defence bodies under article 63, para. 2 in the light of the term..." the same principles shall apply...?"

# 1) Protection of the structure of the organization

How should one interpret the application to civil defence of protection as laid down in a) and above all in b) of the first paragraph in article 63?

Generally speaking, the experts were of the opinion that, according to the wide interpretation hoped for, the principle expressed in b) of the first paragraph (no changes prejudicing humanitarian activities) should also apply to civil defence organizations fulfilling the conditions laid down in the second paragraph, even if no mention is made in the latter of the "structure" of the bodies concerned. In the light of past experience one must certainly expect changes to be made at the head of administrations during occupation, and it is difficult to interpret the provisions in question as absolutely excluding an individual change of personnel. On the other hand, one can by virtue of art. 63, insist on such changes of personnel, on account of their numbers or position, in no way prejudicing the activities of civil defence nor, above all, its efficiency. This conclusion, moreover, fulfils the stipulation recalled by one of the experts, which requires the Occupying Power to co-operate with the

administration of occupied territory by accepting it as a whole as it exists.

# 2) To what extent does protection of activities apply to that of equipment?

In the Commentary of the Fourth Geneva Convention published by the ICRC in 1956, it is stated with reference to (a) in article 63: "This particular provision, however, postulates that the occupation authorities must not paralyse National Societies by depriving them of the property and material means necessary for carrying out their task. It may be concluded from this that the property of the Societies will not be subject to requisition, except in case of absolute necessity and only as a temporary measure; in any case, such requisitioning cannot be allowed to interfere with the essential principle of the continuity of their humanitarian action". It is a question, therefore, of examining to what extent these conclusions can also apply to equipment utilized by Civil Defence, and which is so essential for its activity.

On this point, the experts considered that the protection of the activities of a civil defence body also included protection of the equipment which it uses, in accordance with the ICRC's views expressed above. The question of the ownership itself of this equipment is not the deciding factor: it is sometimes the property of the civil defence body itself, or else of the municipality, or even in some cases of the central authorities. What matters is the uses made of this equipment for the purposes as laid down in art. 63. If it is used by civil defence for humanitarian purposes it cannot be requisitioned except in special circumstances as laid down in the commentary mentioned: even then requisitioning should never be prejudicial to civil defence humanitarian activities.

In this connection, the experts mentioned that in their respective countries, equipment and pieces of equipment used by civil defence personnel generally had some distinctive marking, a practice to be recommended.

# 3) Protection of civil defence activities against requisitioning

Here it is a matter of studying how far civil defence personnel and the organization as such can be requisitioned by virtue of the provision of the law of nations on the right of requisition and in particular of article 51 of the Fourth Geneva Convention. There is thus an interconnection between articles 51 and 63. The experts here confirmed the opinions expressed on question I (5). They considered that the fundamental principle of art. 63 (namely, for relief bodies to be able to pursue their humanitarian activities), precluded the Occupying Power from requisitioning a civil defence body in its entirety, or some of its services, for missions which deviated from tasks expressly laid down in paragraph 2 of that article, and especially from those which it habitually carried out before the occupation.

On the other hand, art. 63 did not seem to be able to prevent individual requisitioning ordered in accordance with art. 51 of the Fourth Convention. For this stipulation in art. 63 certainly does not accord to the personnel of the bodies in question, individual protection as wide as that accorded by the Convention, for example, to the personnel of civilian hospitals.

4) The question of notifying the belligerent State of civil defence organizations fulfilling the conditions of article 63

In one reply which the ICRC received, it was asked whether the expression "the same principles" also took into consideration the fact that the Red Cross Societies are not only recognized on a national level, but that their existence is also known to all the other National Societies, and thus indirectly to all other countries. Is it also suggested that a sort of international notification of civil bodies which could claim to benefit from article 63, should be made?

In this connection some experts also referred to the prior international notification which the Second Geneva Convention lays down for the characteristics of hospital ships. Most experts seemed to favour the idea of a procedure of international notification already in time of peace for civil defence bodies fulfilling the required conditions. Several of them, however, were of the opinion that even when interpreted in the widest sense, article 63 did not necessarily imply the carrying out of such a procedure and that this should rather be the subject of particular mention in an ad hoc regulation. Others considered that notification should not be an absolute condition of immunity to be granted to civil defence personnel fulfilling the required conditions. Finally, one representative of the ICRC pointed out that whilst waiting for the notification procedure to

be clarified, States organizing their civil defence in accordance with article 63 would be advised to specify it now officially on the internal level and especially in the national law covering this organization.

# Question IV: Protection of civil defence personnel belonging to foreign countries and which have come to the aid of the national civil defence organization concerned

This point indirectly raises the problem of the international co-operation of civil defence bodies: when it is a question of going to the aid of wounded military personnel, neutral aid which is given is protected under article 27 of the First Convention. To what extent does article 63 protect aid given by civil defence organizations belonging to other countries and in particular to neutral countries?

In the opinion of the experts paragraph 2 of art. 63 essentially concerns the bodies in the country itself, although the provision does not use the term "national", as opposed to the first paragraph which refers to "national" Societies. It would therefore be fairly difficult, as in the case of notification, to assume from article 63 guarantees for the civil defence services of foreign origin which have come to the aid of those of the occupied territory. In their opinion this article does not offer a favourable solution to international co-operation in civil defence matters; this should also be made the subject of an ad hoc regulation. On this point it could base itself on the First Geneva Convention (art. 27) by which neutral foreign aid societies can lend assistance to the medical service of a Party to the conflict under certain conditions and always provided that such assistance does not constitute interference in the conflict.

The experts considered that one should envisage two cases of co-operation. On the one hand, was the question of the aid which the civil defence of a State at war could offer to that of an allied country; but such aid, which would present no difficulties, could only take place unless the country was not under occupation. On the other hand, the aid which an organization of a neutral State could offer to that of a belligerent, and its co-operation would in any event depend on this belligerent giving his consent.

In the event of the occupation of that belligerent's territory, no specific provision governs the fate of civil defence units of neutral origin. This was a question raised by the experts. Personnel of such units would however benefit from the rules of the Fourth Convention relative to occupied territory. As regards their equipment, this would be subject to the rules covering neutral property found on enemy territory and which can, as in the case of private property, be sometimes subjected to requisition. In this respect the application by analogy of article 34 of the First Convention would be advisable.

Finally, whilst considering international co-operation between civil defence organizations in the case of armed conflict to be highly desirable, several experts thought that this could be achieved especially between medical, rescue and aid to the homeless and refugees services, although co-operation between highly technical services would appear to be more difficult.

# Question V: The possibility of limiting the reservation made in the heading of article 63

Abuse of this reservation can be feared and it has been suggested that its usage be to a certain extent placed under the supervision of the Protecting Power, a prior notification having to be given to the latter by the Occupying Power, whenever it considers it necessary to invoke the said reservation.

The ICRC representatives recalled that by virtue itself of the Convention, article 63 and consequently the reservation mentioned at the beginning of that article already imply the control by the Protecting Power which must contribute to the regular application of all the provisions under the Convention. This Power can thus judge the substantiation of security reasons which the occupant could invoke in order provisionally to suspend or restrict the activities of civil defence in occupied territory.

Whilst admitting that such an interpretation is theoretically correct, some experts were of the opinion that in practice it would be difficult for the Protecting Power to exercise such control. They considered, on this point also, that the proposed system of prior notification by the Occupying Power in the event of making use of the reservation, went further than article 63.

# Question VI: Special identification of civil defence organizations

Possibility of adopting and of having recognized on the international level of a uniform distinctive mark, whatever this may be (uniform, portion of uniform, sign, letter, etc.) for civil defence personnel fulfilling the requisite conditions, or at least for personnel which does not already display another internationally recognized emblem.

This question, which caused the longest discussion of the meeting, was often of a general character and referred especially to these points which will be examined in turn: the advisability of a special identification for civil defence; the value and the control of the identification to be adopted, and the choice itself of a distinctive sign.

# Advisability of special identification

In several replies received by the ICRC, the desire which was expressed to see civil defence organizations benefiting from a special identification raised an important problem. When examining article 63 the experts kept themselves to the guarantees to be accorded to civil defence against any restrictive measures which an Occupying Power might take against it; on the other hand, when dealing with the question of identification, the experts went beyond the framework of article 63 by tackling the problem of the immunity of civil defence and its personnel against hostile acts in general.

It was for this reason that a representative of the ICRC raised in a clear-cut manner, at the beginning of the discussion, the question of knowing whether it was really necessary to envisage a special identification by means of an appropriate distinctive sign for civil defence personnel: in its civilian capacity such personnel benefited from the general immunity which the law of nations accords to noncombatants against hostile acts carried out directly against them. Furthermore, would not cases in which this personnel found itself in contact with the enemy be more or less exceptional? And in such cases would the wearing of a distinctive sign really contribute to its effective protection? This sign would probably in any event not be visible in the case of aerial attack.

The experts, for the most part, replied to this question of principle incisively and in favour of the adoption of a special identification for members of civil defence or at least for a part of them. They put forward several reasons in support of this view. In the first place, said some, if it is theoretically true that noncombatants cannot be the object of attack, in practice it is the civilian population which in present conflicts is often the most vulnerable to the effects of hostilities, all the more as they often do not benefit from protective measures available to the armed forces. In this connection, the considerable increase in the number of civilian deaths was quoted in relation to military losses between the first and the second world wars. Drawing a parallel therefore between the present position of civilians and that of military personnel at the time of Solferino, one expert was of the opinion that the immunity of civil defence was as imperative today as the neutralization of medical personnel of the armed forces had been at that time.

Furthermore, several experts pointed out that by reason of the development of certain forms of warfare (airborne troops, for example), civil defence personnel would often find themselves in the zone of hostilities. Precisely similar reasons were behind the special protection accorded by the Fourth Geneva Convention (art. 20) in these zones to the personnel of civilian hospitals.

By virtue of the Convention this personnel benefit from an *individual* protection; members of civil defence should also enjoy a similar protection, and this could be provided for them if they were a distinctive emblem, since article 63 limits itself to covering the whole of the organization. If one could consider according individual protection for civil defence personnel, as enjoyed by those attached to hospitals, it is also because this personnel is limited in number, organized and even subjected to strict discipline.

Finally, the following was one of the most convincing reasons put forward by the experts: at a time when other civilians can flee, take refuge in shelters or leave vulnerable areas beforehand, civil defence personnel must, on the contrary, run risks and expose themselves often to great danger in order to come to the aid of victims. It is therefore right, when assigning it a distinctive sign, to give it the impression of benefiting from a certain amount of special protection; by doing so it will be encouraged to carry out difficult tasks and also facilitate recruitment of this personnel.

One expert, however, showed himself to be more sceptical concerning the advisability of individual protection, believing that an absolute parallel should not be drawn between civil defence personnel and that of hospitals protected by the Fourth Convention. The latter, as in the case moreover of hospitals, benefits from a special immunity, from the fact that in principle, it must remain on the spot with the wounded and sick of whom it is in charge. This expert admitted, however, that a special identification could be justified for localised points of civil defence, such as relief supply depots or aid equipment; this could also include wounded assembly posts run by civil defence; in this connection, it seemed to him to be illogical to differentiate on the level of humanitarian law between the treatment given to these posts and civilian hospitals.

On this last point, the experts were led to consider one particular question which the ICRC had raised in the preliminary documentation regarding identification 1: could one not attach the civil defence medical services to civilian hospitals, in such a way as to enable the personnel of these services to benefit from guarantees as accorded by article 20 of the Fourth Geneva Convention, especially as regards the wearing of the red cross sign? The experts who had experience in this field considered that this attachment would appear to be impossible, for several reasons, especially from an administrative point of view, and that the medical services of civil defence were autonomous.

# Value and control of the identification adopted

Questioned on the value of the distinctive sign which they hoped for, some experts were of the opinion that this sign should be made the subject of official recognition on the international level and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In some of the replies received by the ICRC, it has sometimes been considered "unjust" that the civil defence medical services which perform the same tasks as the army medical services cannot benefit from displaying the red cross emblem. It is known, however, that the Fourth Geneva Convention limits the right to display this emblem to personnel attached to civilian hospitals or to medical convoys, as, more often than not, civil defence personnel is organized on a different footing. In its 425th circular, the ICRC prepared the adoption of a new emblem, the staff of Aesculapius, red on a white ground for civilian medical personnel which is not specifically protected by the Geneva Conventions.

correspond to the legal protection of a Convention as is the case of the red cross. Hence the necessity of a uniform sign adopted by all the organizations fulfilling the conditions of humanitarian civil defence, in the sense of article 63. Such international recognition could, however, require a great deal of time; the ICRC representatives therefore recommended that the civil defence organizations fulfilling these conditions should already, in practice, adopt some sign upon which they could reach agreement. However, as one expert pointed out, the adoption of some distinctive marking automatically raises a problem even more difficult than the choice itself of a sign: that of the control to be exercised over the regular use of this sign. Who in fact will be responsible for this? The representatives of the ICRC stated that, as far as the red cross sign is concerned, the States themselves, by virtue of the Geneva Conventions, are obliged to prevent abuses of the emblem and to enact the necessary internal legislation to repress them. The National Red Cross Societies, however, themselves see to it that they assist their governments in this task. Civil defence organizations should also, without doubt, assist in the control of the sign which could be adopted in their favour.

This question of control led the experts to a problem connected with it: a distinctive sign only constitutes an assumption of the particular status of the wearer: such an assumption is strengthened when the wearer can, by means of an *identity card*, show proof of his status and of the immunity which it brings him. That is why the majority of experts recommended that civil defense personnel should also be provided with an identity card. Certainly the issuing of such a card can lead to a considerable amount of administrative work, as some feared; but this work, having been carried out for military medical personnel in accordance with art. 40 of the First Geneva Convention, or even for members of the armed forces, by virtue of article 18 of the Third Convention, there is no reason why this cannot also be done for civil defence personnel.

# Choice of the distinctive sign

Several suggestions were made as regards the choice itself of the distinctive sign. The necessity was first of all stressed of a fixed sign, clearly recognizable at a distance and unique. In this connection it was remarked that the reasons which had led to the adoption of the red crescent or the red lion and sun beside the red cross could be avoided in the choice of a sign for civil defence. A suggestion in particular was made for an emblem in the form of a red or yellow circle (a kind of stylised letter C for "civilian") within which the sign appropriate to the various civil defence services would figure. Serious consideration was also given to the idea of a coloured helmet which would be even more visible when civil defence personnel came into contact with the enemy. Several experts however pointed out that this personnel must sometimes work without helmets and that certain services do not normally wear them. It would therefore be preferable for a distinctive sign to be worn together with the helmet, if the idea of the latter were adopted: the sign which was chosen could also be placed on the helmet.

Some experts also suggested a distinctive armlet. Several, however, considered that experience had shown this to be hardly practical and that a fixed sign on a piece of clothing or on the helmet was much more preferable. Finally, the experts admitted that these were only primary suggestions, and that it was for the ICRC, after making a thorough study of the question, to submit their proposals to the various civil defence bodies.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR CONTINUING THE WORK AND CONCLUSIONS

At the end of these discussions, the experts were asked to give their views regarding the ICRC's following up of this work. One expert supported by several of his colleagues saw two clearly distinct tasks, on the one hand, to attempt to establish as wide an interpretation as possible of article 63, and on the other hand, to draw up a new regulation of an international character on the status of civil defence bodies in the case of armed conflict, a regulation which would be applicable in all circumstances and not only for occupied territory.

As regards the first task, indeed only Governments are empowered to give an authentic interpretation of the Convention and, consequently, of article 63. However, on the basis of the discussions which had taken place, the ICRC could draw up a document summa-

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rizing in general outline the interpretation which it was hoped would be made, and submit it to governments in order to base themselves upon it. Regarding the second task, that is to say the drawing up of a new regulation, the experts were fully conscious of the difficulties involved and to which the ICRC representatives had drawn attention. Several experts stressed, however, that the few reactions to the Draft Rules—a complete set of regulations submitted by the ICRC to the XIXth International Conference of the Red Cross—should in no way discourage the International Committee from making every attempt to find a solution to a problem which, in their view, was more limited and urgent, namely, to strengthen the position of civil defence bodies in humanitarian law.

They also removed certain fears which such an initiative might awaken. It was not in fact a question of revising the Geneva Conventions of 1949, but merely of completing them on one point which it had not been possible to regulate adequately at the time of their conclusion. Furthermore, such an initiative would in no way involve abandoning the fundamental principles which had led the ICRC to draw up the draft regulation which it had submitted to the XIXth International Conference, on the contrary, it would be in line with Resolution XIII adopted by that Conference, by which the Committee was requested actively to continue its work for the protection of the civilian population.

As to the procedure to be followed for drawing up such a regulation, there were, according to the experts, two possible courses open. One of these was that which the Geneva Convention of 1949 had adopted. By this the ICRC draws up a draft, submits it first of all to a group of private or governmental experts, then to an International Conference of the Red Cross, the last stage before a Diplomatic Conference. The other course was to leave the entire initiative for this regulation to a group of governments. The experts, however, favoured the first course by reason of the ICRC's competence in the matter of the development of humanitarian law.

In conclusion, the representatives of the ICRC assured the experts that they would give their advice and suggestions every attention. This had already been shown in the steps which it had taken, in particular in its enquiry to further the study of that question. For their part, civil defence organizations can also themselves

contribute to this progress. The majority of experts hoped for a special immunity: but more extended rights would also involve more duties. In this connection the duty of these organizations was indeed the better to distinguish in their structure between what is purely humanitarian and what is not.

As regards the legal foundation of this strengthened protection, it would be difficult for the Red Cross and in any event for the ICRC, to call upon the notion of total war undertaken without discrimination, which they could not admit. But it would be sufficient to start with the idea that aerial attacks even limited to military objectives and directed against them, would necessarily involve the civilian population in considerable risks, chiefly on account of the dispersion of these objectives in populated areas, and also of the everwidening effects of modern weapons. These indirect risks are already such that they fully justify the creation of an effective civil defence.

It is certain, however, as experience has shown, that the more the conduct of war becomes total, the more difficult, if not more hazardous, becomes the task of civil defence. Therefore civil defence organizations themselves have an interest in seeing maintained humanitarian principles imposing limitations to hostilities and in clearly establishing that their special protection implies respect for these limitations as well as for the generally recognized immunity for non-combatants against direct attack.

# INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

#### SUNDRY ACTIVITIES

# **News Items**

# Approaches to the Algerian authorities

Two representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Algeria were present on September 13 last at the release of twenty-five European nationals on whose behalf they had intervened energetically for the past few weeks. They had, in fact, already approached the Algerian authorities on a number of occasions with a view to obtaining the release of more than a thousand cases of missing persons which had been brought to their notice. The ICRC sent the following telegram from Geneva to Mr. Ben Bella, President of the Political Bureau:

"Referring to the meeting which you accorded our delegate in Algiers on August 22, we have the honour to confirm the great anxiety caused to the International Committee of the Red Cross by the complete absence of news concerning 1065 persons abducted since the cease-fire in Algeria and about whom we have received urgent enquiries. We would very much wish to be able to reassure the numerous families which have communicated with us both in Algiers and in Geneva. We express the firm hope that the Political Bureau gives its earliest attention to this distressing problem for whose solution the ICRC here confirms its offer of service. We hope in particular that our delegation in Algiers rapidly receives family news concerning the fate of the missing. If the Algerian authorities consider that they have to keep these missing persons in detention, we would desire our delegate in Algiers to be able to visit them as soon as possible in their places of internment, notably at Maison-Carrée. If, as we hope, a release of these persons can shortly be

expected, the ICRC would be entirely disposed to assist in the repatration or the eventual transfer outside Algeria of persons who would be released. We express our keen gratitude in advance to Your Excellency for the personal interest which you would be so good as to take in our request and for the reply which you would be able to transmit to us in Geneva."

On September 17, two representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross, Mr. Jean-Jacques Muralti and Mr. Joseph Gasser, were authorised to visit the thirty-four Europeans detained in the Maison-Carrée prison near Algiers. They spoke freely and without witnesses with these prisoners, whose nominal roll was then transmitted to the French authorities by the ICRC. From their visit they brought messages destined for the families of the detainees.

# Handing over of relief

Mr. Muralti, delegate of the International Committee of the Red Cross, has handed over to Dr. Benbahmed, President of the Algerian Red Crescent, ten tons of unskimmed powdered milk, provided out of surplus dairy produce from the Swiss Confederation. These supplies were destined for the local Red Crescent committee at Souk Ahras which distributed them to persons repatriated from Tunisia, as well as to others in need, mainly women and children.

Furthermore, the ICRC has handed over a consignment of books in Arabic to a value of 3000 Sw.fr., to the Algerian Red Crescent. This material was originally intended for Algerian detainees in France.

# European detainees in Algeria

The Algerian authorities have handed a new list of recently arrested Europeans to the delegation of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Algiers. This list comprises the names of fifteen persons at present detained in the Maison-Carrée prison. The ICRC delegates have just received authorisation to visit them.

On the other hand, the delegates of the ICRC were present on September 25, 1962 at the release of seven European detainees. They immediately informed their families.

## Mobile teams of the French Red Cross

Since the proclamation of Algerian independence, the International Committee continues to cooperate regularly with the mobile

teams of the French Red Cross, which at all times perform most useful service to the population stricken by the events. In agreement with the new Algerian authorities, in particular the provisional Executive and the Algerian Red Crescent, the ICRC provides medicaments and food to these teams consisting of nurses and equipped with medical trucks. Five teams at present cover the Kabylie and four others the Constantine region.

#### Distributions of relief in Laos

The International Committee is continuing its work on behalf of victims of the recent conflict. Much distress remains to be relieved and this is what Mr. Jacques Ruff the ICRC delegate is endeavouring to do in close co-operation with the Laotian Red Cross.

The delegate has been to the military camp of Chinaïmo, near Vientiane, where he distributed relief supplies, mainly foodstuffs, to the military patients and war wounded being looked after in the local hospital.

He then went to Thakhek, chief town of Khammouane province, to distribute relief supplies to groups of refugees who had come from the mountain regions to the Mekong Valley. Accompanied by several members of the Laotian Red Cross, among them Mrs. Nouphat Chounramany, chairman of the Women's Committee, as well as a representative of the State Insurance, Mr. Ruff handed over rice, condensed milk, salt and various relief supplies to the refugees in several camps and villages. The beneficiaries, who were frequently extremely poor, gave the Red Cross representative a good-humoured and warm welcome.

#### The ICRC in Ireland

Invited to the fourth triennial Convention of the Irish Red Cross, held at Gormanston near Dublin, the International Committee was represented by Mr. Martin Bodmer, Vice-President. Welcomed by Mrs. Tom Barry, Chairman of the Irish Red Cross, by Major-General J. A. Sweeney, General Secretary, and by the other directors of the National Society, the ICRC representative followed with keen interest the Gormanston proceedings which bore witness to the plentiful and charitable work of the Irish Red Cross. Bringing the good wishes of the ICRC to the Assembly, Mr. Bodmer stressed the universal generality attained by the Red Cross movement since its foundation in Geneva, in 1863. He gave a brief description of the current activities of the ICRC, the founder body of the Red Cross, which is so frequently called

upon to exercise its functions as a neutral intermediary in the event of international and civil conflict.

Mr. Bodmer also had the opportunity of meeting members of the Irish Government, including the Prime Minister, Mr. Lemass.

# Visit to Chile, Argentina and Brazil

Mr. P. Jequier was delegated by the ICRC to take part in a journey organised by Swissair on the occasion of the inauguration of that air company's flight between Switzerland and Chile. This journey enabled him to visit the Red Cross Societies of Chile, Argentina and Brazil.

In Santiago de Chile he met leading personalities of the National Society and visited clinics in and around the capital.<sup>1</sup>

Similarly, in Buenos Aires he had the opportunity of meeting members of the executive committee of the National Society and of visiting a hospital in which is installed one of the nursing colleges founded in that country under the Red Cross emblem. He described the tasks at present being undertaken by the ICRC to the committee. He then spoke at a conference, at which many student nurses were present, of the Red Cross ideal and of the greatness of the task which they were accomplishing.

On his return journey he stopped at Rio de Janeiro and visited the headquarters of the Brazilian Red Cross where he was received by the National Society's Secretary-General.

#### The ICRC and the Kurdish Problem

The International Committee has received two new lists of Iraqi prisoners detained by the Kurdish forces fighting the Baghdad Government. These lists include 54 names. As done in August for the first list of 17 names, the ICRC has sent this further information to the Iraqi Red Crescent, to be forwarded to the Iraqi authorities and the prisoners' families.

#### UNO and the dissemination of the Geneva Conventions

The United Nations have asked the International Committee to procure them 19,000 copies of the illustrated booklet in nine languages explaining the principal regulations of the Geneva Conventions, to distribute them in the Congo. The ICRC is in fact preparing the printing of a new edition of this booklet with texts in the four languages most in current use in the Congo, Swahili, Lingala, Tchiluba and Kikongo. The other languages used in this

<sup>1</sup> Plate.

edition are French, English, Spanish, Portuguese and Arabic. As soon as it is in print, the ICRC will place it at the disposal of UNO in the Congo.

# The ICRC visits Mr. Gizenga

Mr. G. C. Senn, delegate of the International Committee in the Congo, recently obtained permission to visit Mr. Antoine Gizenga, detained on the island of Bulambemba, near Leopoldville. At the request of the central Congolese Government, the visit took place in the presence of a medical commission. The ICRC delegate's findings as well as the results of the medical examination indicate that Mr. Gizenga is detained under satisfactory conditions and is in good health. Mr. Gizenga made no complaints in this connection. After his visit, Mr. Senn submitted suggestions to the detaining authorities with a view to improving the conditions of detention.

### Missions of the ICRC in Berlin and Vienna

Between July and September 1962, Mr. Beckh, delegate of the ICRC, carried out two missions to Berlin. As we have pointed out several times he regularly goes to West Berlin, where the Senate has always accorded him facilities for visiting penal establishments. There he talks freely and without witnesses with prisoners considered to be political detainees. On his two missions he again visited two penal establishments where he talked individually with fifteen convicted and fourteen accused persons. He was given every latitude to examine the conditions of detention and he dealt in particular with some cases.

He also occupied himself with the problems of the reuniting of families and of visits, which had become impossible since the middle of August, of members of the same family between West and East Berlin.

In Berlin and its suburbs, certain incidents led the International Committee to charge its delegate to make representations in East Berlin as well as in West Berlin in order to ensure the giving of immediate medical assistance to the wounded, in the event of a repetition of such cases. The negotiations during which the ICRC representative was also received by Mr. Willy Brandt, Mayor of West Berlin, resulted in talks with Dr. Ludwig, President of the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, and with Dr. Blos, President of the "Landesverband" of the German Red Cross in the German Federal Republic in West Berlin.

Declarations giving the points of view of the authorities concerned were published in an ICRC press release.<sup>1</sup> It welcomed the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See International Review, September 1962, page 493.



At Santiago de Chile, the ICRC delegate, Mr. Jequier with the directing staff of a polyclinic of the Chilian Red Cross.

At Buenos Aires, he explains the present tasks of the ICRC to members of the Argentine Red Cross.





Mr. Beckh, delegate of the ICRC, visiting an ambulance park in West Berlin (with Mr. Stamm, Secretary-General of the "Landesverband" of the German Red Cross in the German Federal Republic)...

... and in East Berlin (with Mrs. Hartmann of the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, and the Deputy Director of the "Rellungsamt").



declarations made by the two parties who have thus confirmed their intention to conform not only to the letter but also to the spirit of the Geneva Conventions of which they are signatories.

In East Berlin Mr. Beckh visited the Central Relief Service (Rettungsamt) of the municipality of Great Berlin and the "Landesverband" of the German Red Cross in West Berlin, both of which supplied him with circumstantial explanations on the possibilities of giving immediate medical relief.<sup>1</sup>

We would finally point out that in between these two missions to Berlin, Mr. Beckh went to Vienna with the object of examining the work of the ICRC delegation, and in order to deal with various cases of the reuniting of families. He met Mr. Sevcik, Secretary-General of the Austrian Red Cross, and was received by Mr. Afritsch, Minister of the Interior.

#### Guests of the ICRC

From mid-August to September 15, the ICRC received several personalities at its headquarters, which, in particular, included the following: Mr. Louis Maire, President of the Council of the FAO; Mgr. Costante Maltoni, Counsellor of the Apostolic Nunciate at Berne; Mr. Saul Rae, new Permanent Representative of Canada in Geneva; Mr. A. G. Jonker, first secretary of the Netherlands Embassy in London; Miss Toshiko Suzuki, assistant to the Directress of the Junior Red Cross of Japan; Mrs. S. Aurelia Hobson, President of the Hawkes Bay Centre of the New Zealand Red Cross; Mrs. Fotoohi of Teheran and Miss Siomala of Athens, directresses of nursing schools; Mr. Takayuki Nate of the Junior Red Cross of Tokyo.

Furthermore, the ICRC welcomed various groups of visitors amongst whom were professors of Japanese universities; a group of members of the British Red Cross; pupils of the Technical Institute of Treviglio (Italy); young people of different nationalities, returning from the United States, where they had been the guests of that country's Junior Red Cross; members of the Fara Novarese branch of the Italian Red Cross; students of the Nursing School of the Cantonal Hospital of Lausanne, and young members of the German Red Cross of the Federal Republic.

<sup>1</sup> Plate.

#### † Edouard de BONDELI

On October 5, 1962, Edouard de Bondeli met his death in a railway accident.

It was with deep regret that the International Committee of the Red Cross learnt of the tragic end of its financial and administrative Director.

Belonging to a Bernese family established in Paris, Edouard de Bondeli entered the service of the International Committee of the Red Cross in 1942 where he first of all worked in the British section of the Central Prisoners of War Agency. An excellent administrator, he was appointed in 1950 Assistant Director of the Financial and Administrative services, of which he was quite recently made Director.

Endowed with a remarkable capacity for work, he devoted himself to the arduous task of seeking material support throughout the world in order to enable the Red Cross to continue its mission.

These few indications show the importance of all Edouard de Bondeli undertook in the service of the Red Cross over a number of years, accomplished with such success and giving proof of much energy and intelligence. His death is keenly felt and the International Committee will retain a faithful and grateful memory of him.

# † JACQUES DE MORSIER

Dr. Jacques de Morsier who has just died in Paris, gave great service to the Red Cross. He performed outstanding work on behalf of the victims of war in circumstances which were often dramatic and in the midst of danger which never deterred him.

Medical adviser of the Swiss Legation in Paris, Dr. de Morsier, whose humanitarian activity had always been voluntary, placed himself, in the summer of 1940, at the service of the International Committee of the Red Cross. He started by organising an important tracing service on behalf of the French civilian population, working in co-operation with the Central Prisoners of War Agency at the headquarters of the ICRC in Geneva. During the occupation he made the most tenacious efforts to mitigate the lot of interned civilians. He intervened with special insistence on behalf of persons threatened with deportation, chiefly Jews. He was successful on several occasions in preventing the departure of convoys destined for concentration camps in Germany.

At the liberation of Paris, his action, combined with that of the Swedish and Swiss consuls, greatly contributed towards avoiding the worst disasters. He made numerous approaches to the German command, organised the exchange of prisoners and saved the lives of many prisoners both military and civilian. He gave proof then of exeptional courage and circulated through streets in which there was firing in every direction, with the Red Cross flag as his only protection.

Strictly applying the Red Cross principle of neutrality, Dr. de Morsier intervened with equal energy and devotion on behalf of

#### INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

German prisoners in France. In this activity he made very numerous visits to camps and prisons. He obtained on behalf of his new protégés very considerable improvements in their conditions and respect for the Geneva Conventions.

Until his death Dr. de Morsier remained medical adviser to the ICRC delegation in Paris.

The above indications testify to the constancy and faithfulness of the services rendered by the deceased to the Geneva institution. His co-operation was always modest and effective and he often demonstrated great qualities of energy and devotion. The International Committee will keep a grateful memory of Dr. Jacques de Morsier, that tireless defender of the humanitarian cause.

#### ANNUAL REPORT OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Throughout 1961 the actions of the International Committee of the Red Cross continued to be numerous, important and diverse. These are described in its Annual Report for 1961, recently published 1, recalling the various international currents which agitated the world during the past year, since, whenever men face each other with weapons in their hands, it is the duty of the Red Cross, and especially of the International Committee, to intervene in order to mitigate the distress caused by the conflict, and, in spite of the violence which is unleashed, to remind people of having the needs of humanity and fellowship respected.

As in the previous year, the ICRC had to deploy considerable effort in 1961 in the former Belgian Congo. This activity certainly produced most fortunate results since it enabled much suffering to be relieved, but it also had its tragic side, since it cost the lives of one of the Committee's delegates and of his companions. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ICRC, Geneva, 1962.

Report describes the various phases of this activity which, in addition to its manifold aspects of assistance, also consisted in spreading the knowledge of the Geneva Conventions and Red Cross ideals with a view to limiting the effects of violence as far as possible.

Similarly the ICRC continued its activity in the Algerian conflict. It attempted to aid all the victims of the events, visiting detained persons (Algerian nationalists as well as European activists) and distributed relief to the regrouped populations. The Bizerta affair also imposed a heavy task on it, which consisted in assisting the victims of both sides.

The ICRC further intervened in various other parts of the world, in particular in Laos, Indonesia and in the Goa conflict. Elsewhere, notably in Europe, it continued various tasks on behalf of the victims of earlier events whose consequences still cause suffering.

The Report gives a precise account of all these different activities always undertaken in accordance with Red Cross ideals. It also seeks to show the extent and usefulness of the theoretical and legal work accomplished by the ICRC which applies itself ceaselessly to develop humanitarian international law, in order to offer ever more effective protection to the victims of eventual conflicts.

## NEWS OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

Formerly: International Bulletin of Red Cross Societies, founded in 1869

#### Lebanon

#### RED CROSS VOLUNTARY WORKERS

The man of today, divided between fear and optimism in the face of modern science and techniques, runs the risk of no longer being able to reason soundly and of not being capable of judging objectively daily events, those which the future holds and, finally, himself. He forgets that none of his actions, his feelings or even his thoughts have any real value except in the extent to which they are concerned in the interest of his fellow-men, and that the characteristic of man lies in the freedom which is given him to translate this interest in others into action.

This action is important not only for the person who accomplishes it, but for the person who benefits from it. It is inspired by what could be called an "idealistic realism", which is what the idealism of the Red Cross is, and this is extremely well explained by Mrs Saab, Secretary-General of the Lebanese Red Cross in a speech which she made in Beirut on the occasion of the meeting of participants in the different preparatory courses for voluntary aids.

She was therefore speaking to Red Cross voluntary workers and her speech, given in Arabic, has been translated into French by Mrs. Issa-el-Khoury, a member of the Central Committee of the National Society. In view of the importance of the problem and the interesting way in which Mrs Saab has dealt with it, we now publish her speech below;—

In spite of the progress achieved in the sphere of science and techniques, and in spite of man's attempts to conquer space, humanity is passing through a period fraught with worry, fear, disappointments, physical and moral suffering. Never has the world had greater need for the principles and thought of the Red Cross to face the difficulties of modern times, and to solve them in a constructive manner. It is therefore necessary to draw on the energy and enthusiasm of youth. The latter is ready to serve suffering humanity, but its enthusiasms must be channelled.

In his book "A Memory of Solferino", Henry Dunant stressed on countless occasions the necessity to enlist the aid of everybody: men, women, young people, those who hold power, those who modestly remain apart, the simple workman, the poor just as much as the rich, the intellectual just as much as the common man. Dunant wanted every single person to be called upon to co-operate in his humanitarian work.

Now, the Red Cross was born from the appeal of the great philanthropist which Dunant was. It is the living expression of love of one's neighbour, of the individual's devotion to all his fellow-men throughout the world. It demands the help of men of goodwill, of all social conditions. Everybody, in the sphere and with the knowledge which are his own, can take part in its multiple activities. Every man must help in building a new world, not only for himself and for his own, but for his neighbour whoever he may be. Furthermore, the habit of responsibility will give to those who assume it a stronger personality, thanks to the experience acquired in different spheres, and in the same way it will teach them the discipline necessary to all work. People who offer their help to those who suffer are continually reinforcing the voluntary services of the Red Cross. Public opinion, thanks to the teaching of these services, has a better knowledge of the Red Cross and its principles and gives it material and moral support, which it needs to develop its different activities.

It cannot be denied that the voluntary worker is a very useful link in the chain which unites the Red Cross to the National Society. It is easier for him in fact to learn of the desires and needs of the public, and therefore to obtain the material aid necessary for the accomplishment of our task.

Now, to reach a higher number of voluntary workers, to maintain intact their enthusiasm and their willingness to serve, and to facilitate their participation in our institution, it is necessary to organise the work and establish a programme of the services which they can render and which are expected of them, taking into account

the responsibilities which will be given them. Strict co-operation and sincere understanding must be fostered between them and the instructors.

The instructors are helped, in the accomplishment of their task, by voluntary workers, whose field of action they enlarge, and frequently one discovers in the latter the essential qualities of enlightened leaders.

Voluntary workers must be given a job that interests them and which develops their capacities, just as it is also necessary that the job to be done remains within the limits of their capabilities, and that they always maintain contact with the Red Cross. One can recognise the ideal voluntary worker by the following qualities: a true love of one's neighbour; an open mind, ready to learn; a profound belief in the work to be accomplished; a sincere desire to co-operate with the Red Cross; the courage to try new experiments and draw up fresh plans for the future, and even be ready to revise them if necessary; the force to communicate enthusiasm and energy to others; perseverance in the work so that the desired aim can be achieved.

As the Red Cross relies on the support of the voluntary workers to carry out the task on which it is set, it is necessary to form a special committee of voluntary workers. The head of the committee must draw up a programme, including an enumeration of urgent necessities and needs of a social nature; form a group dealing especially with the voluntary workers, and whose job it is to draw up a work plan for them; to recruit voluntary workers, choose them and guide them, supervise their work and recognise their merits.

The head of the committee must also look after the following questions: the nature and quantity of the work required; the number of voluntary workers needed in the different services; limits to what is asked of the voluntary workers concerning hours of work (morning, afternoon, evening, whole day, half day, two hours, etc.); the arrangement of the work (one day a week or more); the supervision of the work of voluntary workers, who owe it to themselves to accept this supervision.

The Red Cross offers to all those with the right spirit the opportunity to work under its banner, to safeguard human dignity.

#### DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

At its 841st meeting, held on November 20, 1959, the United Nations' General Assembly adopted a "Declaration of the Rights of the Child" on the report of the Third Committee.

Owing to the political events of the past year, the attention of the United Nations, and hence of world opinion, has been centred on a number of other problems. However, there are few matters of such lasting interest as this document, which, in fact, pledges the future of mankind according to principles which, if they were to be universally respected, would create a better, more understanding and more tolerant world filled with a more profound feeling of fellowship and an awareness of its duties towards mankind.

The International Review considers it appropriate to remind its readers of the terms of this resolution by reproducing it below. The principles laid down in this Declaration are indeed perfectly consistent with the principles of the Red Cross and the Red Cross movement cannot but support such a rightful cause. The wording is as follows:

#### Preamble

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Whereas the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth,

Whereas the need for such special safeguards has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the statutes of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

Whereas mankind owes to the child the best it has to give,

Now therefore,

## The General Assembly

Proclaims this Declaration of the Rights of the Child to the end that he may have a happy childhood and enjoy for his own good and for the good of society the rights and freedoms herein set forth, and calls upon parents, upon men and women as individuals, and upon voluntary organizations, local authorities and national Governments to recognize these rights and strive for their observance by legislative and other measures progressively taken in accordance with the following principles:

# Principle 1

The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration Every child, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination on account of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.

# Principle 2

The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose, the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

## Principle 3

The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.

## Principle 4

The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end, special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

## Principle 5

The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.

## Principle 6

The child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding. He shall, wherever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents, and, in any case, in an atmosphere of affection and of moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the public authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and to those without adequate means of support. Payment of State and other assistance towards the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

# Principle 7

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgment, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance; that responsibility lies in the first place with the parents.

The child shall have the full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right.

## Principle 8

The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

## Principle 9

The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic, in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.

# Principle 10

The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood, and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellow men.

#### WORLD HEALTH PROBLEMS

During the fifteenth World Health Assembly in Geneva in May 1962, which was attended by numerous delegates and at which the International Committee of the Red Cross was represented, Dr. M. G. Candau presented his report on the work of the World Health Organization, of which he is Director-General. He spoke of the progress made in the world-wide malaria eradication programme and of the mass campaigns against the communicable diseases with which WHO will continue to be concerned for many years to come. He then referred to the problem of environmental sanitation, stating that there can be no hope of complete success in campaigns against disease unless the conditions of environmental sanitation in which 80 % of the world's inhabitants are living can be considerably improved.

Dr. Candau went on to deal at some length with the Organization's efforts to stimulate and co-ordinate research in medicine and public health, and with the education and training of medical, paramedical and auxiliary personnel. The second of these questions, he said, is of fundamental importance to the countries which have just become, or are about to become, independent:

"Certainly the plans for social and economic development generally cover expansion and improvement of existing health services, but there are some cases where it will be necessary practically to start from the beginning and create such services, or completely reorganize them. The success of such an undertaking depends to a large extent on the availability of qualified personnel. This means that the training of national personnel is a matter of urgency, whether such training be provided in the country of origin or abroad, or both.

"Too many countries still depend on foreign personnel to fill the key posts in their health services. Independence in this field is certainly the final aim, but to achieve it the level of general education must be sufficiently high, and this is a long and expensive process.

"For this reason it is encouraging to know that there is in the world a common fund of goodwill which enables the newly independent nations to profit from the invaluable professional experience which some privileged countries have accumulated over the centuries.

#### **MISCELLANEOUS**

"Nevertheless... I believe that in this connexion certain reservations are imperative: there may be certain disadvantages in making too much use of foreign-study fellowships for the training of health personnel. The student who arrives in a foreign country is subjected to complete physical and social change and if he is not sufficiently mature mentally this change may expose him to a serious risk in so far as the success of his studies is concerned. Moreover, he will often be taking a training course in a social and cultural environment which is entirely different from that to which he will be returning so that on his return he may find himself 'out of step'. In addition, this phenomenon will be aggravated if, as is often the case, he is required to exercise his profession in isolation far from any cultural centre.

"All this shows how important it is that countries should receive the assistance necessary to enable them to organize their medical training by the creation of their own schools of medicine. This . . . is no small task: it requires not only a great deal of money but also—and above all—qualified teaching staff, which it is not easy to find. In Africa, for example, it will certainly be some years before such an enterprise can achieve its objectives. In the meantime, WHO is making every effort to assist the few schools of medicine which happily already exist so that they may rapidly achieve their maximum output.

"Passing now to the question of auxiliary personnel, there is no doubt that such personnel has a paramount role to play in the development of the health services in all countries. Nevertheless, they can only be used to the full under the constant supervision of qualified medical and paramedical staff and, as we have seen, the training of this national qualified staff, which will often be taking over from the international personnel, is a long process.

"This time factor is one of the most frequent reasons why governments hesitate to make a frontal attack upon this problem of the training of health personnel. I have noted with apprehension that this hesitation is often shared by certain international or bilateral organizations or institutions which give preference to short-time projects liable to produce quick—but superficial—results rather than undertake long-term programmes whose results are more enduring but less spectacular in the immediate future. This refers, for example, to study fellowships. A fellowship of a few weeks is often accorded to enable a physician to go and study a very specialized subject for which he is not in fact basically prepared. It is evident that this type of fellowship cannot pay worthwhile dividends. Moreover, such practices are dangerous since they may give the developing countries the impression that medical training, and particularly specialization, can be obtained by easy short cuts. If there is one thing we must at all costs avoid in our profession, it is a facile

approach: I mean that in the field of medical training, there must be thoroughness and continuity.

"Without wishing to enter into statistical details, I will cite as an example the situation in Africa as it appears in the light of a survey which we undertook in 12 countries of the Region. In a territory with about 150 million inhabitants there is on an average one physician per 20 000 inhabitants. If this figure is to be doubled in 20 years—that is, if there is to be one physician per 10 000 inhabitants—it will be necessary, taking into account the increase in the population, for more than 1000 young physicians to complete the medical-school course every year for the next 20 years. Our inquiries in fact showed that the existing schools, even at their maximum output, will only be able to train less than half this minimum number . . . this example demonstrates very clearly the magnitude of one of the tasks we have taken upon ourselves: the creation of new schools of medicine."

Turning to the question of medical research the Director-General of WHO said:

"The exchange of scientific and medical information—which is one of our organization's responsibilities—has a concrete and clearly defined objective: to assist countries to put into practice the discoveries and techniques of modern medicine so that the health level of all their citizens may be thereby improved.

"To take one example only: the works of the scientists who have co-operated with us in the field of insecticides (biochemists, physiologists, geneticists, biologists, entomologists) have certainly been of value in the determination of the properties of the insecticides and pesticides at present in use and of those which it is proposed to employ in the future. However, for us the ultimate aim of their investigations has been to give practical help to those countries which are combating malaria, filariasis, etc. by means of insecticides.

"The application of new discoveries in campaigns against specific diseases often creates new subjects for research, and it is therefore essential that the laboratory investigator and the worker in the field (who, incidentally, like Molière's M. Jourdain, often 'talks prose' without being aware of it) should be constantly studying the efficacy of the technical means used in the battle for health.

"Research, which plays a part in all the activities of twentiethcentury man, thus takes an important place also in the programmes of our organization.

"Since 1958, as you will see in detail in the document to be submitted to you during this session, WHO has participated in 175 research projects.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

This vast undertaking is gradually extending to the whole of humanity's problems in its efforts to achieve total health as it is defined in our Constitution.

"Research on communicable diseases and their vectors rightly occupies a preponderant place in this programme, together with cancer, cardiovascular diseases and malnutrition. You will note, however, that in its research programme WHO is also penetrating into the field of immunology and into the relatively new sphere of human genetics. The problems of genetics are in fact becoming increasingly important, if only from the point of view of the evaluation of the possible risks to which the reproductive cells are exposed by the changes which man himself is making in his environment. Here, as elsewhere, WHO is fulfilling its role by encouraging the training of research workers, facilitating interlaboratory relations and supporting comparative studies of human populations."

In conclusion, Dr. Candau spoke of the critical moment in history at which the Assembly was meeting:

"The leaders of your countries are seeking means to enable us to live in a coherent and civilized world. They realize that the prodigious speeding-up of the new means of transport, the virtual conquest of space and the uncontrolled and increasing production of arms may bring the world to the brink of destruction. On the other hand, your statesmen know that science allied to technology can make the dream of universal plenty a reality for every human being. The new countries which aspire to a place in the concert of nations will not receive satisfaction unless rivalries and conflicts give way to solidarity and peaceful co-operation. They will be able to develop and become strong only with the generous and disinterested help of their more fortunate neighbours.

"In the field of health, is it not one of this Assembly's privileges to take the initiative in regard to any measures liable to improve the lot of mankind as a whole? If we act in this sense—without allowing ourselves to be deterred either by attitudes inherited from the past or by financial considerations which, although important, cannot be a determining factor—we shall have made a positive contribution to the vast move towards development which is taking shape, and which we all earnestly hope will mark a new and harmonious stage in economic and social progress."

# FRIDTJOF NANSEN <sup>1</sup> by Fritz Wartenweiler

The International Review has already had occasion to recall Nansen's fine personality when, on the occasion of the centenary of the birth of that great servant of humanity, it published an article, in May 1930, by Mr. Edouard-Aug. Frick, former Delegate General of the ICRC.<sup>2</sup> We now present a biography first published in German in 1930 and now translated from an adaptation by Mr. Jean-François Cabrières, who had the privilege of meeting Nansen when he was a student. The impression made upon him was so strong that he was determined to increase the circle of admirers of a man whom Fritz Wartenweiler described as "the intrepid Viking".

The first part of the book deals with Nansen's childhood, one which had as its motto "harden yourself early". The author describes a serious child, hardened to physical suffering but compassionate towards others, tenacious, fearless, sensitive to the pleasures of a home full of austerity; dreaming also of deeds inspired by his questioning spirit and his taste for fighting. From an early age, "he submitted his body to domination by the spirit", thus forming a balanced whole which was to prepare him admirably for the hard existence which was to be his. First of all an explorer, discoverer of the vast spaces of the North, learned naturalist anxious to "verify the soundness of his intuitions which were often brilliant and also a patriot who played a major rôle in his country's struggle for independence"; then the more we read of this enthralling book the more do we become aware of the other aspect of his personality which was to crown his achievement and make Nansen an excep-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Labor et Fides, Geneva.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See International Review, October 1961.

tional person. By his deep sense of the human side of things, his unchanging devotion to others he was to be an effective champion of many victims.

To him life was throughout the great profound mystery enchanting the mind. "In the polar nights or in the great white desert when all seemed congealed and numb he could discern the pulse of life under the ice". To pierce the outer shell to reach the human being in his intimate, most painful secrets, that seems to be his action as a friend of man, and which was to make him say: "Humanity is the one sphere of which I have a certain knowledge". It is in fact for humanity's sake that he was to undertake a new action, as fruitful and rich in useful results, when he was nearing sixty, an action which was to be the crowning of his remarkable destiny.

The second part of the book is mainly devoted to the great philanthropical work for which he abandoned the task which he had intended to complete: to resolve the mysteries of the Arctic. Under the heading "The vision of a World renewed", and with the sub-title "The war and its consequences", the author describes the numerous activities in which Nansen engaged himself with the Norwegian Government at a time when his country was undergoing difficulties of every description; then his journey to Washington where he was sent to obtain supply facilities; finally his nomination by the League of Nations to the post of High Commissioner for the repatriation of prisoners of war.

In a forceful and expressive style, the author describes the various difficulties, financial, material and political, which he had to overcome to carry out a task which seemed to be out of all human proportion and which, however, was achieved, as shown in the chapter dealing with this action "Half a million men saved"; although this is a short chapter, it recalls the poignancy of those who know the considerable participation of the Red Cross in this effort.

The following chapter gives a brief historical sketch of the "Nansen passport". One had first of all to find countries of asylum and opportunities for work for hundreds of thousands of fugitives of all conditions, and with the help of leading legal experts, to supply them with the essential identity documents, entitling them to the right of living legally in those countries. Nansen himself

created an international employment office, a first attempt at establishing a labour market, to cope with unemployment amongst the fugitives, whose "ramifications were to spread throughout the world". We are thus in the presence of a wide-ranging innovator in the legal and social sphere.

It would have seemed, once this arduous mission had been completed, that Nansen could in all conscience have resumed his scientific work. This was not to be the case. In fact the chapter "To the rescue of starving Russia" informs us that on August 12, 1921 he received a telegram from Gustave Ador, then President of the ICRC. asking him urgently to lend his support in the struggle against famine in Russia in co-operation with Herbert Hoover. And we see him once more fighting with the same tenacity against ill-wishers, political intrigue and the refusal of governments to finance this action. Far from becoming discouraged by the many obstacles barring his way he showed redoubled vigour and determination. In a Europe where all seemed in a state of chaos, he succeeded in organizing a relief action in Russia; in addition he played a major rôle in Greece during the transfer of populations and in European Turkey where one hundred thousand Armenian refugees found themselves without shelter and did not know where to go.

Finally, the last chapter "The evening of a life" is filled with melancholy. Nansen has returned to his own country where, as nearly everywhere else in Europe, there were ominous currents which filled him with anxiety since he could not disinterest himself in events whatever they might be. Moreover, he never despaired and in that he teaches us a great and moving lesson. Against everything which depresses and threaten to destroy the spirit he only upholds one attitude "work harder, make ever greater efforts". The whole book indeed confirms this attitude. The seeker after truth and the apostle of peace so admirably combine as the author rightly says, to form the rarest thing of all, a man.

J. Z.

# EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTES OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

(AGREED AND AMENDED ON SEPTEMBER 25, 1952)

ART. 1. — The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), founded in Geneva in 1863 and formally recognized in the Geneva Conventions and by International Conferences of the Red Cross, shall be an independent organization having its own Statutes.

It shall be a constituent part of the International Red Cross.<sup>1</sup>

- ART. 2. As an association governed by Articles 60 and following of the Swiss Civil Code, the ICRC shall have legal personality.
- ART. 3. The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva. Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be "Inter arma caritas".
  - ART. 4. The special rôle of the ICRC shall be:
- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The International Red Cross comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term "National Red Cross Societies" includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.

- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions;
- (d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve, in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties;
- (e) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in cooperation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities;
- (f) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension;
- (g) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its rôle as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any question requiring examination by such an institution.

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. The number of members may not exceed twenty-five.



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- ALBANIA Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga Barrikadavet, *Tirana*.
- ARGENTINE Argentine Red Cross, Victoria 2068 (R.72), Buenos Aires.
- AUSTRALIA --- Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, Melbourne, C. 1.
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- BELGIUM Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simon-Bolivar, 1515 (Casilla 741), La Paz.
- BRAZIL Brazilian Red Cross, Praça da Cruz Vermelha 10-12, Rio de Janeiro.
- BULGARIA Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Biruzov, Sofia.
- BURMA Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, Rangoon.
- CAMBODIA Cambodian Red Cross, 8 Phlauv Ang Nonn, P.O.B. 94, Pnom-Penh.
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- CZECHOSLOVAKIA Czechoslovakian Red Cross, Thunovska 18, Prague III.
- DENMARK Danish Red Cross, Platanvej 22, Copenhagen V.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293 San Domingo.
- ECUADOR Ecuadorian Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elizalde 118, Quito.
- ETHIOPIA Ethiopian Red Cross, Addis Ababa.
- FINLAND Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu I A, Helsinki.

- FRANCE French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, Paris (80).
- GERMANY (Dem. Republic) German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, Dresden A. 1.
- GERMANY (Federal Republic) German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, Bonn.
- GHANA Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835 Accra.
- GREAT BRITAIN British Red Cross, 14 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.
- GREECE Greek Red Cross, rue Lycavitou 1
  Athens 135.
- GUATEMALA Guatemalan Red Cross, 4a Calle 11-42, Zona 1, Guatemala.
- HAITI Haiti Red Cross, rue Férou, Port-au-Prince.
- HONDURAS Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant, Tegucigalpa.
- HUNGARY Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, Budapest V.
- ICELAND Icelandic Red Cross, Thorvaldsensstraeti 6, Reykjavik.
- INDIA Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, New Delhi 1.
- INDONESIA Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 9, Djakarta.
- IRAN Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, Teheran.
- IRAQ Iraqi Red Crescent, Baghdad.
- IRELAND Irish Red Cross, 25 Westland Row,

  Dublin.
- ITALY Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, Rome.
- JAPAN Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shiba Park, Minato-Ku, Tokyo.
- JORDAN Jordan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 1337, Amman.
- KOREA (Democratic Republic) Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Pyongyang.
- KOREA (Republic) The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3 Ka Nam San-Dong, Seoul.
- LAOS Laotian Red Cross, Vientiane.
- LEBANON Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, Beirut.

#### ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- LIBERIA Liberian National Red Cross, Camp Johnson Road, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYA Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, Benghazi.
- LIECHTENSTEIN Liechtenstein Red Cross,
- LUXEMBURG Luxemburg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, Luxemburg.
- MEXICO Mexican Red Cross, Sinaloa 20, 40 piso, *Mexico* 7, D.F.
- MONACO Red Cross of Monaco, 27, Boul. de Suisse, *Monte-Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, 26, Nairamdal Gudamg, P.O. 20/26 Ulan-Bator.
- MOROCCO Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Calmette, Rabat.
- NETHERLANDS Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND New Zealand Red Cross, 61 Dixon Street, P.O.B. 6073, Wellington C.2.
- NICARAGUA Nicaraguan Red Cross, 12 Avenida Nordeste, 305, Managua, D.N.C.A.
- NIGERIA The Nigerian Red Cross Society, 2, Makoko Road, P.O. Box 764, Lagos.
- NORWAY Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, Oslo.
- PAKISTAN Pakistan Red Cross, Frere Street, Karachi 4.
- PANAMA Panamanian Red Cross, Panama.
- PARAGUAY Paraguayan Red Cross, calle André Barbero y Artigas, Asunción.
- PERU Peruvian Red Cross, Tarapaca 881, Lima.
- PHILIPPINES Philippine National Red Cross, 600 Isaac Peral Street, P.O.B. 280, Manila.
- POLAND Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, Warsaw.
- PORTUGAL Portuguese Red Cross, General Secretaryship, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, Lisbon.
- RUMANIA Red Cross of the Rumanian People's Republic, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, C.P. 729, Bucarest.

- SALVADOR Salvador Red Cross, 3a Ayenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, 21, San Salvador.
- SAN MARINO San Marino Red Cross, San Marino.
- SOUTH AFRICA (Republic) South African Red Cross, 14 Hollard Street, P.O.B. 8726, Johannesburg.
- SPAIN Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, Madrid, 10.
- SUDAN Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, Khartum.
- SWEDEN Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, Stockholm 14.
- SWITZERLAND Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, Berne.
- SYRIA Syrian Red Crescent, Damascus.
- THAILAND Thai Red Cross Society, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Bangkok.
- TOGO Togolese Red Cross Society, Avenue des Alliés, P.O. Box 655, Lome.
- TUNISIA Tunisian Red Crescent, 1, Avenue de Carthage, Tunis.
- TURKEY Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, Ankara.
- UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Republic, 34, rue Ramses, Cairo.
- URUGUAY Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre, 2990, Montevideo.
- U.S.A. American Red Cross, National Headquarters, 17th and D Streets, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.
- U.S.S.R. Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Kouznetsky Most 18/7, Moscow.
- VENEZUELA Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No 4, Caracas.
- VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Triez, Hanoi.
- VIET NAM (Republic) Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, duong Hông-Thap-Tu, No. 201, Saigon.
- YUGOSLAVIA Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, Belgrade.